The International Journal

for

THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

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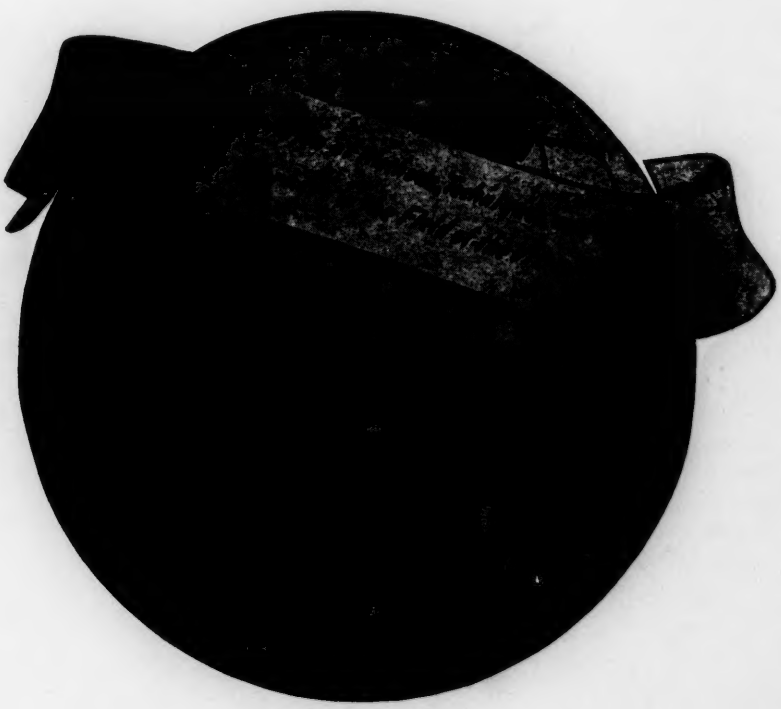

THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL

FOR

THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

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The International Journal for THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND is a professional magazine of methods, techniques and research for teachers and workers in the field of the visually handicapped. It is incorporated under the laws of the State of New York to create a medium for the free expression of the progress or the need for progress in the field of the blind. It is intended to provide opportunities for the free exchange of ideas, suggestions, and achievements in the area of the visually handicapped; to disseminate information and the findings of research and experiment relative to the methods and techniques in the education and training of the blind; to give recognition (through awards or otherwise) for outstanding contribution and service to the cause of the blind. In general, to encourage the advancement and uniformity of the methods of teaching and assisting the blind; to foster a greater national and international consciousness and understanding of the problems and well-being of the blind throughout the world; to stimulate interest, research and creative effort affecting the education and training of the blind and to encourage thoughtful and enlightened endeavor to achieve this end.

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(*Continued on inside of back cover*)

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ABOUT THE NEW JOURNAL

For more than a decade a number of superintendents of schools for the blind in the United States have periodically discussed the possibility of establishing a professional journal devoted entirely and specifically to the field of educating blind youth. Several times the project seemed near the crystalization point, but among other things the war intervened. Now at last you hold in your hands the first issue of the International Journal for the Education of the Blind, the culmination of much discussion and anticipation. You will note by the membership on the Board of Trustees that many leaders in the field of the education of the blind are joining in this project.

For those of you who are not familiar with the purpose, may I say in the words of a dear friend who was likewise engaged in the publication of a magazine for the blind, C. F. F. Campbell, "The Publication Committee offers a forum for the free and open discussion of all topics connected with the education of the blind . . . those who have the experience and expert knowledge will give us the results of their work and observations that all may benefit thereby. We have no theories of our own to advocate, no projects to exploit. Our only desire is to be of service to the great cause of helpfulness to the blind. 'Come, let us reason together.' "

It is hoped that the magazine will fill a long felt want and that it may find a place in the hands of every teacher and administrator in our field, for without the support of the professionals in the schools, the magazine cannot exist. We likewise earnestly solicit your participation by submitting articles of interest and detailed accounts of experimental work or projects in which you may be interested.

The International Journal for the Education of the Blind will be issued at least four times a year and eventually as material accumulates and demand grows, become a monthly. We hope to provide opportunity for the free exchange of ideas not only in our country but abroad, to disseminate information and the findings of research and experiment relative to the methods and techniques in the education of the blind.

With these aims and the support of the profession we cannot fail to have a magazine of professional interest which will compare with the best in the field. I am sure I speak for the editors when I say that your criticisms and suggestions will always be most welcome.

JOSEPH G. CAUFFMAN

Josef G. Cauffman is principal of the Overbrook School for the Blind, and President of the Board of Trustees of the International Journal for THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND.

A POSITIVE APPROACH TO BLINDNESS

By PAUL SAUERLAND

What is a positive approach to blindness? To me it would indicate a recognition of what blindness really is and of what it is not, a recognition that the loss of sight, handicap though it may be, does not automatically carry with it the mental, physical, social and economic limitations that have often, consciously or unconsciously, been ascribed to it.

Because I have been blind since early childhood and because I have met some competitive problems in the sighted world, I want to give credit where it is due: to my parents who did not restrict me unduly because of my blindness but encouraged me to progress and make a success of my life; and to the resident school which was properly equipped and staffed to give me that educational background which has made it possible to compete in the sighted world. Furthermore, I would like in the following paragraphs to suggest at least some of the major considerations which I feel should enter into the training of blind children for the type of worthwhile adult life which I may in some measure achieve. I do so without claiming perfection for myself and without claiming to be an authority on parenthood or on the teaching profession. My comments are based solely upon my own experience and those of my associates.

Unfortunately, blindness is a distinguishing mark in the eyes of the public, and the common distinction is not a credit to the blind individual's competence as a human being. However, the achievements of increasing numbers of the sightless indicate clearly that the best means of combatting this public reaction of pity, uncertainty, and fear, based primarily upon ignorance, is not to shelter the blind. The answer lies in giving the blind individual the physical, mental, psychological and social background to conduct himself in as nearly a normal manner as possible, thereby providing for himself a fruitful existence as contrasted with the dull, secluded life common to the blind in the past and at the same time helping to break down the misunderstanding of the public.

If we assign to the parents the primary responsibility for molding the child's personal habits and social behavior and to the school the primary responsibility for educating the child in the academic and manual fields so that he has the knowledge and skill to compete with his sighted fellows, we must also realize that the job of training the individual is a full-time proposition. Thus, parents and teachers must each be interested in what the other is doing and their efforts must overlap. Furthermore, the child must be aware of this parent-teacher joint interest and cooperation so that there is no relaxing of his effort when school is not in session. However, for the sake of simplicity and clarity, the functions of parents and teachers will, for the most part, be treated separately here.

Before undertaking this breakdown three general principles can be set forth. First of all, the blind child must have confidence in himself, and this can be instilled only by the parents and teachers who guide his activities. If they remind him of his handicap and its limitations, make excuses for it, assist in his daily tasks without regard to his actual or latent ability, and restrict his activities stringently he will become a relatively dependent and helpless creature. However, if they stimulate and guide him to help himself and to progress, even through experimentation, with the risk of early failure he cannot help but believe in himself.

Almost equally important the sightless child must learn not to demand or even expect special consideration because of the handicap. It does no good for organizations of the blind and workers for the blind to tell the public that we are and want to be just like other

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people if the blind themselves act in an opposite manner. The child must be taught that he is, first of all, a human being with the same rights, privileges, duties and responsibilities as other human beings and that he is a blind person only to the extent that he must learn to use substitutes for the sight he does not have. The world owes the blind nothing except equal opportunity.

The third general principal is to seek information whenever it will be helpful. A blind person should learn early that it is far less embarassing and conspicuous to ask questions than to fumble through a situation with apparent uncertainty and perhaps obvious error. It should be made evident that sighted people ask questions too, about the blind. More generally, blind children should be stimulated to keep informed on topics that might enter into conversations with their acquaintances or prospective acquaintances so that they are not set apart by an inability to converse.

To turn now more specifically to the role of the parents in the training of blind children, one of the most perplexing problems to the sightless is that of meeting people and becoming acquainted with them on a natural basis. A majority of the public will shy away from a blind person because he seems different, and they are not sure how they should approach him. Thus the blind individual must be prepared to take the initiative. A vivid illustration of this fact can be found in my experience the first few days at college. Despite the fact that my parents had made it possible for me to meet sighted people and associate with them, I was slow in making acquaintances in my new surroundings. Perhaps two out of five hundred students made a positive effort to know me. The rest were uninterested until I made the approach and demonstrated that I was one of them. Two out of five hundred is no percentage upon which to base success.

Therefore, the child cannot start too soon to learn how to make and keep acquaintances, and there is no substitute here for actual experience. Neighborhood friendships should be encouraged, also participation in childrens' community activities where they exist. Parents should take the child to visit relatives and friends, especially where there are sighted children in the families with whom they can mingle. He should attend such features as motion pictures and sports events to broaden his interests and his background. Church groups will be an excellent source of serious and recreational activity and also of individual friendships. Only through these actual contacts will the child learn what people do, how they think, and what they expect of their associates, and only if he can fit into the pattern of social behavior will he be at ease. Among many other things he should strive to be an informed and versatile conversationalist.

Embarrassing situations may occur in many of the first meetings with sighted children, but experience will ease their effect and will better enable the child to meet them with some thing more than shame and resentment.

Closely allied is the problem of travel. Obviously to make a place for himself in the community the blind person must be able to travel, and if he can do it relatively independently and efficiently he will be more closely approaching that normal life of which we are speaking.

When the child travels with his parents he should be made thoroughly conversant with the routes and the surroundings, including such things as direction, street or station names, types of buildings or establishments on the route, facts about the construction of stations, trains, and buses which will help him to maneuver properly in them—including the location and use of turnstiles, fare boxes, and bars or straps which aid a traveler to stand in moving vehicles. Again, the value of asking questions should be made clear. Perhaps parents can ask questions themselves occasionally while traveling to demonstrate that it is a usual practice. A person calls more attention to his handicap by displaying obvious uncertainty in travel than by asking directions. The principle of not seeking special consideration is important. For example, blindness does not logically carry with it the right to demand or even expect a seat in a crowded public conveyance. Under ordinary circumstances a sightless person still has his two feet to stand on, and the child should become accustomed to refusing offers of seats and to experiencing the routine of standing, Of course, it should also be remembered that the public must be treated courteously, and it may, therefore, be necessary occasionally to accept a seat when offered by a persistent passenger.

Now within this broad framework we have outlined, the blind person must also have those personal habits which will make him socially acceptable. In other words, in such matters as dress, table manners, posture, and other personal attributes, he must at least meet common standards.

Clothing is an extremely important factor that can be dealt with throughout childhood and adolescence. The individual should be made aware of the meaning of fashions and the changing of fashions from year to year and from season to season. Color matching should be explained to him. He should be expected to check with a sighted person after dressing to make certain he has chosen the proper combinations and is not wearing soiled garments. It is very easy, for example, to select accidentally, as I have, two shoes or two socks of different colors, but there is no excuse for allowing the error to go uncorrected. Furthermore, the child should learn a routine in the placing of his clothing so that chances of error are reduced. Inconspicuous marking of garments may also be helpful.

Everyone, of course, is expected to have good table manners, but it may be that a blind person will have to consecrate a little more on them. Table settings vary so greatly that he probably cannot depend, except at home or at school, upon knowing the position of items on the table. It is certainly wiser for him to again ask questions than to reach out indiscriminately and spill food or beverage. Similarly, a blind person can and should learn to cut his own food; but here, too, he should learn to ask the position and nature of articles on the plate before attempting it. It is probably a good idea to change table settings and routines at home to familiarize the child with some of the possibilities and with the need for his checking carefully.

No one with poor posture looks well, and a blind individual with unnatural posture attracts even more attention than is usually the case. In addition, he may not be as aware of the significance of posture as if he could see. Consequently, parents—and teachers, too—must concentrate on reminding the child to correct posture faults.

Certain types of habits are often designated as "blindisms." These include queer sounds of the voice, unnatural hand or facial movements, excessive shuffling of the feet, and walking with hands constantly outstretched. Obviously, these should be guarded against at home as well as at school for they are marks of abnormal conduct which can and should be eradicated.

Part of the education of every child is his gradual assumption of appropriate responsibilities at home and at school. Parents of blind children have no reason to neglect this experience for them. With a minimum of extra supervision, the blind child is capable of helping with the house cleaning, cooking, shopping, and even with home repairs. I have had each of these experiences in varying degrees, and they have certainly made me feel that I am a working part of our family unit. Furthermore, they prepare one for a time when he may not be living with his family or may actually acquire increased family responsibility.

We come now to the one major remaining factor in the child's training—his formal education. Of course, it is the function of the school to provide this but with the active interest and backing of the parents. Here, too, deficiencies must be zealously guarded against, since a blind person needs every possible advantage in competing for his rightful social and economic place in later life.

While it is not our purpose here to discuss the techniques for educating blind children, since teachers have been given these tools in the course of their own training, we suggest that those teachers best succeed in their mission who make a conscious effort to ignore the child's handicap, to insist that it not be used as an excuse for laxity on his part, to circumvent blindness in every possible way in conducting their classes, to extend their interest in each child beyond the requirements of the immediate subject being taught to include his general conduct, to stimulate him to as complete and as varied a field of knowledge and skill that can be fitted into a school curriculum and to broaden such curriculum at every opportunity. The group activities at school and the requirements for good personal conduct and self discipline in all extra curricular activities are beneficial to the students and their scope should be as unlimited as possible in the school program.

Working hand in hand in all phases of the educational and training program, community interests, parents and teachers, extra-curricular supervisors, and dormitory proctors can, at the same time, enhance the physical, mental and personality development of the visually handicapped pupil. This type of teamwork will continue to produce blind citizens who will be equipped to live the normal lives we all seek.

FACTORS OF TECHNICAL RESEARCH AND THEIR RELATIONSHIP TO THE PROGRAM OF INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION

By FREDERICK M. SIGAFOOS

The main purpose of this article is to present to you a picture of practical training for the blind student. The secondary purposes of this article is to inspire constructive thought and open discussional doors for those who are interested in what might be termed parallel problems of vocational training. It is true the problems of preparing the vocational product in one locale will differ somewhat from another locale, but the basis of practical approach and the presentation of a course of study should, it seems, have a parallel foundation, and in the end, a parallel result.

Today, as never before, the vocational student is faced with the challenge of equipping himself with talents which will later sell his abilities and usefulness to industry. Today, as never before, training programs should be practical, realistic and flexible to such a degree that the student will be so fully cognizant of the beginner-worker techniques found and practiced in the varied fields of manufacturing.

The employer of this age demands quality. He looks for intelligence, maturity, adaptability and training as keystones to success. He expects these and many other qualifications with which you are familiar to be apparent when he sums up an individual and decides to place him on his payroll. In short, we have a measured knowledge of what the employer desires in the personnel he places in his particular enterprise.

But the vocational student has absolutely no conception of an employer's attitudes or desires, no conception of industrial techniques or no conception of production output unless there is an adequate program to instruct him.

Frederick M. Sigafoos is Director of Technical Research and Teacher of Machine Shop Practice and Industrial Education at the Overbrook School for the Blind. Mr. Sigafoos studied mechanical engineering at the University of Pennsylvania and is the creator of four inventions for the blind — the Rotomatic Ruler, the Clickamatic Ruler, the Tuckaway Stylus and a telescopic cane.

For five years the department of technical research at Overbrook has studied the problems of training students for the industrial job. We have studied the problems of placement, and we have studied and worked with the problems and the practical approach to factory methods of production training. Over this period the course of instruction has been designed to present the student with the types of work he will find available to him if he chooses to pursue a career in the industrial field.

The question at the moment is, "What is industrial education, and does a knowledge of it aid the blind vocational student?" Industrial Education is a course of study so incorporated in the curricula of vocational training that the student is presented with a practical working knowledge of how industry functions today, and why it functions the way it does. Industrial education acquaints the student with the history of industrial expansion, the proper use of particular types of machinery, the place and function of the union, and employer-employee relationships. It is a broad flexible subject which can cover any part of manufacturing, or it can be pointedly brought to bear on a specific enterprise. It is desirable for students to acquire a knowledge of a subject as important as this, and certainly one must agree that a few field trips to manufacturing plants, and lectures introducing the techniques of manufacture behind products will greatly help the vocational student to understand the complex manufacturing world as it is today. Industrial education also embraces the use of machinery and tools, no matter what type they may be.

And now—let us examine some factors of technical research and see what relationship they have toward industrial education.

First, there is the factor of production. We know the blind individual is a good, dependable worker, but he will be a better equipped employee if the objectivity of production is

placed in his hands while he is a student. To confront the student with factory techniques, to produce tooling which will accommodate repetitive processes, and to subject the trainee to speed work of an industrial nature will train him to work faster, with accuracy and lack of fatigue. The student who does the job of repetitive production in school need have no qualms about his first weeks' output of work on his first job.

Quality control is another factor which will motivate the student to better work. When a student knows his work will be inspected and assembled by someone else, something greater than pride in a good job well done will face him; and that is the fact that he is part of a production team. His is a unit of work—just a unit, but an important one—and it must be within dimension or the production program cannot continue to operate smoothly.

Nomenclature is an important and motivating factor. The student naturally has a curious mind regarding machinery. If he is to operate a machine he wants to know all about it. The names of the parts and sections take on important meanings to him. The functions of a machine aid his understanding of how various articles are made. A student is interested in the history of machines. just as he is interested in the models of automobiles. The students in machine shop and industrial education at Overbrook are now studying from a newly written text primarily designed and written as an introduction to machinery and tools. As a student assumes operations on, let us say, the drill press, he studies the chapter written about the same machine and other allied types of drill presses used in the manufacturing field today. This book, "Fundamentals of Machinery," which I have written, will soon be available for use in the field. It will be published in braille and also in inkprint. "Fundamentals of Machinery" is used to supplement the students' working knowledge of machines, and is also designed to be used as a supplement for the instructor.

There are occasions when it is interesting to note student reactions to responsibility. A factor which has produced fruitful results, and one that severely tests student knowledge and training is, without warning, to place an advanced student in supervisory charge of shop operations. In short, for a half a day the "supervisor" must size up the complete shop operation, decide who will run each and every machine or bench project, and be expected to answer the pertinent questions that may crop up regarding the fundamental operations of the machines. We know what a maturing factor responsibility can be. It can also be classed as a challenge. It has been our experience at Overbrook to note how the student likes to accept responsibility. In the machine shop students are encouraged to step ahead on their own—with proper guidance, naturally. They are encouraged to try and improve methods with their own ideas. They are encouraged to "think it out."

The blind student, as a rule, is always in competition with his future, because his future, in most cases, will deal with the sighted world. As an aid to a better understanding of his vocational progress and how it is measured by sighted means, an important factor that stimulates the training program is to invite business, industrial and labor representatives into the shop, and with the aid of the students explain the basis for the type of instruction and the production training. A student feels a great deal of confidence in himself when he explains machine and factory techniques to an individual who is interested in the same field. And conversely, it proves to the men in the industrial field that the students and their program have genuine objectives. Furthermore, through this type of public education the reputation of the work accomplished by the students has resulted in many outside production contracts for which the students are paid the usual prevailing factory rates. And most important, these public relations have many times opened up job opportunities for the students.

These are some of the factors of technical research which have been explored, tested and incorporated into the program of machine shop and industrial education at Overbrook. There are many more which cannot be discussed at this writing. In conclusion, however, call the program what you will. If it has objectivity and a genuine seriousness of purpose behind it, and if it can train youth to hold a job and progress on that job in the sighted world, then it can be said that the program is preparing the vocational student to take his place as a contributing member of society today.

PENCIL WRITING FOR THE BLIND

By RUBY C. HAMRICK

Pencil writing for the blind is by no means new. While we do not know who began this work, we do know that it was taught at Perkins Institution before 1836. In Dr. Howe's report for 1836 he wrote, "One of the most gratifying results is the facility which pupils acquire of writing; many of them are now capable of finishing with their own hands and without assistance very legible letters which are sent by mail to their parents." Again in 1840 Dr. Howe wrote, "But the most gratifying acquirement Laura (Bridgman) has made and the one which has given her the most delight is the power of writing a legible hand and of expressing her thoughts on paper . . . She applied herself with great diligence and in a few months actually wrote a legible letter to her mother." Perkins Institution still has the samples of Laura Bridgman's pencil writing.

The usefulness of pencil writing for the blind has always been a point of controversy. There is probably no school for the blind that has not at one time tried some form of pencil writing. The Virginia School tried it in 1925 but soon gave it up. Leslie Eggleston in his New York Institute monograph "Script Writing for the Blind" says:

"Because of persistent effort on the part of some teachers, pencil writing has flourished for awhile in some schools only to be abandoned after a few years, and I believe up to the present time (1936) no school with the exception of Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, at Watertown, has been able to establish it definitely enough as a part of its school curriculum to outlast any change of regime. Practically no progress has been made, most of the schools being satisfied that the task of teaching pencil writing for practical purposes was impossible. In cases where attempt was made the effort has seemed half-hearted and lacked methodical routine.

"Possibilities were discussed and re-discussed at a number of conventions. Mr. Wait, Principal of the New York Institute for the Blind in New York City, said that he believed pencil writing a great convenience for the blind, and Dr. O. H. Burritt of The Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind thought it to be impractical. Of the latter point of view was George W. Jones, Superintendent of the Illinois School for the Blind, who stated that . . . 'Instead of spending so much time and energy in teaching the use of the pen which the child will never use, teach him to use the knife, the fork, the spoon, which he will, I hope, use three times a day, and you will do more for him than you could by giving him the ability to solve all the problems in arithmetic, algebra and geometry combined.' On the other hand, Mr. Holmes of the Matilda Zeigler Magazine was in favor of courses in writing for the visually handicapped. This cross-section of opinions is given to show the extent of the controversy. At this time pencil writing was taught at Ontario, Pittsburgh, Baltimore, Columbus, Raleigh and Boston. . . .

"Round-hand or script handwriting presents problems very difficult for the blind to overcome. The series of curves and diagonal slopes between letters is particularly hard to master . . . Many people who are not familiar with the problems in trying to view the possibilities of script writing for the blind, fail to recognize many of the difficulties. They grab a pencil, close their eyes and assume that they are writing under the same conditions as a blind person. They have completely missed the point and have in no way succeeded in placing themselves in that position. Under these conditions they write their name well and even continue to the end of the line without serious deviation. To them it seems easy, but let these same people take a pencil in untrained hands and copy a series of characters foreign to them, only by feeling the raised characters to be copied, then and only then are the conditions comparable to the ones under which the blind attempt to write, and only then can they realize the difficulties in learning and teaching script writing."

The Virginia School is teaching square handwriting rather than the above script. To us it

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Ruby C. Hamrick is a graduate of Madison College with a degree of Bachelor of Science in Education. Mrs. Hamrick also studied at Columbia University and has been employed by the Virginia School for the Deaf and the Blind for the past nineteen years.

seems to be easier and more legible when written. Again Perkins gets the credit for the development of the writing "board" used in square handwriting. The "board" or card, has been in use there since the days of Helen Keller. The card is a washboard effect with raised sections between the grooves wider than the grooves themselves. A pencil is used on regular typing paper clipped to this grooved card. We at the Virginia School have found that ball point pens work equally as well as the pencil. The grooves, felt through the paper, provide guidance both for straightness of line and the formation of letters according to concise directions, which have been committed to memory. For example, in making the letter "a" the pupil is told to begin at the top of the groove, move his pencil to the left, then to the bottom of the groove, then to the right, back to the top of the groove, retrace to the bottom of the groove then to the right. For a "tall letter" such as "b"—place pencil in middle of the space above the groove, straight down to the bottom of the groove, right, up to top of the groove and finish letter by going to the right. The pencil, or ball point pen (because it doesn't smear), is held in more or less a verticle position for square writing. The index finger of the left hand is used as a guide in letter and word spacing.

We selected four totally blind seniors for our first class in pencil writing. As these folks completed the course they were dropped, one at a time, and others added from the juniors, sophomores and so on. The time taken to learn to write legibly and with fair fluency varies strikingly with the individual. Some children complete the course in six weeks, some, having less time to spend in class and others lacking in manipulative skill require more time. When the course is completed they know all the alphabet, both capitals and small letters, all numbers and punctuation marks. A letter home is one of the first requirements at completion of the work. The reply to this is anxiously awaited to see if "Mom" can really read the writing.

We realize that pencil writing will never take the place of Braille or the typewriter, but we also recognize the fact that it does provide a convenient, inexpensive substitute for the typewriter for unofficial letters and other matter that the blind writer does not have to read. For some it may afford chiefly a means of writing a legible signature acceptable for checks and other documents. For all it is found to satisfy a very natural desire to "write like other people." As long as it can accomplish these things and as long as it is as enthusiastically received as it has been these past two years we hope to keep it a very definite part of our curriculum in the Virginia School.

SPEECH EDUCATION FOR THE VISUALLY HANDICAPPED CHILD

By DONALD BRIELAND

We spend 95 per cent of the time devoted to the study of English in learning how to write the language while in adult life probably the same percentage of our expression takes a spoken form. It has become clear that training in written composition does not satisfy the student's need for training in oral communication. In an effort to make school experience more practical, speech units and separate speech courses have been developed in elementary schools, high schools, and colleges. Speech training has come to be included in the curriculum for the visually handicapped as well as for the sighted child.

The purpose of this discussion is to consider some of the important questions to be taken into account in planning speech programs for the visually handicapped. It expresses the viewpoint of a research psychologist who has also had experience in teaching public speaking and in working with speech defectives.[1]

Donald Brieland is an Assistant Professor in the Institute of Child Welfare of the University of Minnesota. Doctor Brieland received his Ph.D. in 1949 from the University of Minnesota. His Ph.D. thesis was "Speech and Personality of the Visually Handicapped."

1. For a summary of the literature on speech of the blind and for the details of the major study upon which this article is based see Brieland, Donald; A comparative study of the speech of blind and sighted children, *Speech Monographs*, 17, March 1950, 99-103.

Talks with administrators and teachers in residential schools and in day classes for the blind lead one to conclude that even teachers with considerable training in speech feel that a visual handicap exerts a considerable negative influence on both the voice and gesture aspects of speech performance. This point of view is consistent with the judgment of writers in the field. The major differences that they observe may be summarized as follows:

1. The blind show less vocal variety.
2. Lack of modulation is more typical among the blind.
3. The blind tend to talk louder than the sighted.
4. The blind speak at a slower rate.
5. Less effective use of gesture and bodily action is found among the blind.
6. The blind use less lip movement in articulation of sounds.

A study involving the matching of congenitally blind adolescents with a sighted control group indicates that the blind group are not inferior to sighted subjects on voice factors, but they show less effective use of bodily action. These conclusions are based on ratings of ten judges with wide experience in the speech field. Vocal samples were secured of identical narrative material as presented by each project. These recordings were played in random order to the judges so that they did not know whether they were hearing a blind or a sighted person. A part of the same performance was also filmed on silent movie film so that a record of bodily activity was available for each subject. All the children wore dark glasses to minimize the influence of obvious visual defects upon the ratings of the films.

The following general conclusions were indicated:

1. There were no significant differences between blind and sighted samples on voice ratings. The slight differences that existed favored the blind.
2. Ratings of bodily action and of lip movement favored the sighted subject.
3. The subsamples who were totally blind had significantly higher voice ratings than the subgroup with vision between light perception and 20/200.
4. Results on the Bell Adjustment Inventory indicated significantly better adjustment for the control group on health, social and emotional factors. Correlations of the Bell Inventory and ratings of speech factors in no case approached statistical significance.

A careful analysis of the voice samples in the study indicate that minor speech defects were found in both the blind and sighted populations but that none of the subjects was considered as being in need of referral to a speech clinician.

In developing a speech program for visually handicapped children, we must be sure that because of a child's visual handicap we do not become over-sensitized to minor speech difficulties and thus judge that youngster's speech less favorably than we should. The results imply that the blind child's use of the voice, at least by adolescence, compares well with the performance of sighted children. Problems will be found in both groups, but the seeming inferiority of the blind may be the result of generalizing from the visual inferiority to their speech—and this without reason. The blind, because they have to rely more upon their voices to present their ideas than do sighted people, may actually become more proficient in vocal performance. The sighted people can be more certain of the social effects of their bodily action which they have learned through unconsciously imitating others. For the blind, this source of stimulation is not available.

Differences favoring the speech performance of the totally blind over those subjects with a very small amount of vision may reflect the acceptance of their visual condition by the former group, whereas very limited vision plus day-to-day variations in acuity may make adjustment more difficult. In any case these results are consistent with other psychological research which shows the partially sighted group to be generally less well adjusted than the totally blind.

Although the matter needs further study, it would seem that blind children entering grade school are likely to show more speech defects than are sighted children of the same age. We do not know how much psychological conditions in the home environment have to do with it, but it is consistent that the blind youngster who is less emotionally mature may also show less mature speech behavior. It should be reemphasized, however, that by adolescence, little difference is found between blind and sighted groups in the incidence of defects. Often the first few months at school will result in the clearing up of defective sounds without any direct help by the teacher or by a speech clinician. This is the result

of a combination of maturation and social imitation of the speech of the teacher and of other children. No such pattern of improvement is likely for the youngster who comes to school as a stutterer, however. He should have the help of a speech therapist and the regular teacher also should seek help so that she can be sure that the things that she does facilitate rather than retard the child's speech development.

The attitude of the classroom teacher is of great importance for the visually handicapped child. Direct criticism and adverse comparisons with other members of the group may make speech improvement very difficult. The necessity of patience and understanding without over-protection is clear. Genuine interest in the verbal output of the child, acceptance of him, and a non-critical attitude toward defective sounds and bad grammar may help to develop a child's confidence and reduce fear of talking. The first thing is to encourage the child to talk freely rather than to be too much concerned about his rate of comprehensibility or the level of vocabulary used. Increased confidence, the development of social skills within the peer-group, and a reduction of tension for the child are the basis for speech improvement. When articulartory defects persist, speech therapy may be needed, but often by the time a child has reached second grade, he has solved many of his own articulation problems. When difficulties persist not only should the teacher make necessary referrals to a speech clinician, but she may often need to give the therapist some idea of what special methods may be helpful in working with a blind child. She can help him understand visual handicaps and he can help her concerning her response to speech deviations.

Restrictions that parents place on blind children may make for passivity and lack of responsiveness in social situations. The more skilled a teacher can be in getting youngsters to work together in small groups on cooperative projects and to make friendly contacts with others outside their own peer-group, the more easily free and spontaneous conversation will develop. Social interchange provides the context for growth in speech skill. A teacher-centered and fact-centered elementary school situation may often deprive the child of valuable social experiences and intensify "stage fright" problems for him in an organized speech class later. The blind child may need to have his social world structured to a greater extent by the teacher. Otherwise he is likely to take the easy way out—a way that involves minimal participation. Whereas school generally restricts the activities of the sighted child, for the blind a good school program and a creative teacher can often provide a freer environment than does his home when we consider the caution and overprotection of some parents.

Speech experience units in the elementary grades differ considerably from school to school. Choric speaking is often used. Oral reports and compositions are very popular. Speech contests involving both memorized and original compositions are still fairly common. Dramatic skits and plays provide a variety of speech experiences. Along with these planned projects must come a philosophy aimed at helping the youngster with little ability to gain satisfaction through participation. Stress on absolute standards of excellence and extrinsic rewards often helps only the "star." The dangers of imitation should also be clear. It is not desirable to turn out carbon copies of a teacher's speech pattern. The close identification that some visually handicapped children make with the teacher may cause imitation to be a particular problem with this group.

For the boy or girl of high school age, a separate course in speech should be offered. It should be at least one semester in length and preferably a full year. It should be taught, if possible, by a teacher with a major in speech. In no case should it be taught by someone who has not had special training in the teaching of speech. Too often speech experience is provided only through a voluntary club. This means that those who already have skill will participate and those who need speech training most will not get it.

There are many good outlines for planning courses in speech. It would seem that the best course in terms of practical value is built primarily around extemporaneous speaking where the student organizes his thoughts carefully and after formulating a basic outline presents his ideas with or without notes. This type of training will be more generally useful than a course directed mainly toward memorized speaking or oral reading of literary selections.

The visually handicapped youngster may need some voice training but probably no more than a sighted student. Voice exercises for high school age classes are likely to provide more embarrassment than constructive influence for the student.

Special bodily action problems occur often among the blind. Extremely awkward positions,

particularly of the hands, may result when a speaker has had no opportunity to see how he looks. Such "blindisms need special attention. It is best to tell the youngsters what he should do rather than merely to criticize what he is already doing. For example, one blind student used to lock his hands together at a strange angle in front of him. (The sighted speaker often does much the same thing, but puts his hands behind him and is thus less conspicuous.)

Rather than to describe in detail how his hands look, it is better to say, "You'll make a better appearance if you let your hands hang freely at your sides." Such a suggestion places the emphasis on the remedy rather than on the fault. Positive suggestions of this sort are always more helpful than just pointing out defects.

A speech course provides an excellent opportunity for personality development because our speech is an important cue to our personality. When we gain confidence in speech, when we can talk with conviction and assurance, people are likely to be more favorable in their judgment of our personalities. This means that the teacher of a course in speech should have a general knowledge of principles of mental hygiene. He may want to encourage students to feel free to talk over personal problems and through conferences give them individual help. This does not mean, however, that a speech class should have as its purpose the practice of psycho-therapy.

Personal experience, school events, and current affairs are among the materials that provide good topics for speech assignments. Through dealing with these topics and making improvement from assignment to assignment, the student is likely to show an increase in dominance and extraversion. That in itself may be of great value for the visually handicapped youngster if he tends to be self-conscious and unsocial.

Where problems of stage fright (or more properly, social fear) are important it may be well to begin with some assignments in group discussion where four or five members can work together and do their talking sitting down. This often reduces fear. The universality of a certain degree of fear among speakers and the ways that tension can be used to give a speaker vitality and enthusiasm should be discussed early in the course.

The criticism of speeches by other members of the class may provide a course of encouragement or defeat. It is well to train students to enumerate the things they like about a speech first and then to point out defects and make constructive suggestions. At least a brief discussion of the things done well will often relieve the concern that a speaker has as he finishes a talk.

It is well to teach braille students to make their talks without referring to notes. The same is true of partially sighted youngsters whose use of notes would be likely to distract their sighted hearers. There is more and more of a tendency to teach all high school speakers to make short talks with careful preparation without notes and without verbatim memory. The student who can be trained to make a three to five minute fluent talk by this method has a skill that can be of great value in later life.

One of the special problems faced by the blind student may come in a tendency to use either too little or too much volume. Experimental evidence indicates that a blind student is more likely to adopt one excess of volume or the other. Loudness may be related to inability to locate one's hearers or to overcompensation. Undue softness may be allied with a tendency to withdraw. In any case, the teacher should encourage an average volume level. Use of a recorder may help to convey to the student any problems in volume as well as other considerations related either to use of the voice or speech composition.

Many teachers working with the blind may feel discouraged if their students do not succeed in achieving the level of proficiency which they identify with the best sighted speakers. Often teachers fail to recognize that few sighted speakers will achieve this standard. More important is the amount of improvement made—not alone in speech but in related personality factors. Perhaps the blind speaker may be more tense and less direct than a sighted speaker, but under almost every program of speech training significant improvement is made.

There is little doubt that carefully planned programs of speech training including extra curricular activities as well as speech units and courses can pay dividends in the education of the blind. There is a need for a larger number of well-trained teachers. A continuing program of research and evaluation can be used to indicate more clearly the special requirements of speech education for the visually handicapped.

THE VALUE OF REFERENCES

By BOYD E. NELSON

Certainly one of the foremost goals for any school for the blind is to train its pupils to live successfully. The common rules of etiquette, good grooming and general attitude possibly play the most important roles in the lives of all of us. To a blind child special attention to these human graces can often more than compensate for the loss of vision. These are the qualities which lead to the obtaining of good references. These might well be paramount objectives in all of school programming.

A wise man once said, "A good name is better than money." He might have added that a good name can also contribute greatly to obtaining financial and social security. References are a major consideration in almost any effort involving money or friends. To obtain a new position; to receive advancement within a firm; to secure funds to start a business or improve a business; to purchase items for personal improvement on credit, and to be accepted in a training or school program toward future employment, all depend on the nature and quality of references. In fact it is the rare and usually unprogressive person who is not faced with the problem of references several times during his life.

The patterning of one's habits along the philosophies presented in certain established proverbs can produce references which pay off. "A stitch in time saves nine." "People will talk about you. Give them something good to say." "Honey attracts more flies than vinegar."

References are built not found. It takes many days, months and even years to build a reputation upon which one might depend. Yet references and reputation are being formed at every contact with any person.

To receive a promotion within a firm or a pay raise, several factors are usually considered. One's record is always influenced by: What do fellow workers think of you? What does the boss think of you? What is your reputation for cooperation, friendliness, neatness, thoroughness, skill and loyalty?

Seldom does one obtain a new position of responsibility without being carefully investigated. One's employment record for the past five, ten or fifteen years receives due consideration. Special attention is given to various types of references. What do former employers consider as your strong and weak points? With what civic and social organizations are you associated? Are you a leader? What do your leaders think of you? What school or schools have you attended? What was your record? What opinion did your teachers have of you? What church do you attend? Will they recommend you in qualities of thrift, prompt payment of bills and honesty? These factors have influence in any change of employment, in moving to a new community or in any venture to improve or alter the routine of living.

Not only do references mean financial security but they offer social advantages. The enrichments of living are determined by the company one keeps, the neighborhood in which one lives and the interests in one's environment. One's acceptability among groups of fellowmen is determined by reputation. The references building one's reputation may not be written but their existance is just as real. Such references may soon be converted into writing when the need arises. The newcomer in any community who brings with him the reputation of stability, good-fellowship, and fair dealing usually has the opportunity to select his friends. His mode of living has fitted him to mingle with ease among reputable friends. Such citizens accept him as one of their group.

Financial, family and social satisfactions are the results of references. Reputation is built upon references spoken and written. The man who earnestly seeks the references of good men lives the happy adjusted life. He is a good citizen, he has the respect of his neighbors, he has a good job and maintains the highest ideals of home and community.

It is of greatest importance for all persons to seek good references. It is even more important that visually handicapped individuals obtain such recognition. Jobs are then easier to obtain, advancement is more certain, friends are more understanding, and life is generally brighter. It is well to consider one's actions in terms of what others will think.

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CARE AND TRAINING (EDUCATION) OF THE BLIND IN SWEDEN

By TORE GISSLER

The total number of the blind in Sweden reaches between 6,000 and 6,500. About one half of these have become blind through age.

Blind children and children whose visual powers are so badly impaired that they cannot profit from attendance at normal schools have to attend the *Institute and Preparatory School for the Blind at Tomteboda* (address: Tomteboda, Stockholm). The Institute is also a school for children whose visual powers are only partially impaired. About one fourth of the pupils are capable of following normal reading and writing exercises during certain lessons. (All pupils, the totally blind as well as those whose eyesight is impaired, however, are unable to attend a normal primary school.) If, for one reason or another, they do not enter this school at the compulsory school age of 7 (in the event, for instance, that they should have become blind at a later age), the Institute is required to admit them until they have reached the age of 14 years. Children admitted at the age of 7, stay at the school for 10 years; for those who enter at a later age this period may be reduced. Attendance at this school is not compulsory for children who, in addition to being blind, are deaf or mentally deficient or suffer from some other complicated disability. Before the 1st of April of every year, every parish has to hand in a list of the blind parishioners under the age of 20 within its school district to the School Board (School Council). The Board transmits these data in its turn to the Board of Education on certain printed forms before the 1st of May. The guardian (or next of kin to the blind child) who wishes to place such a child in the school may address himself in writing to the Board of the Institute. The necessary forms may be obtained from the Rector. At the Institute pupils pass through a seven years' primary school course followed by a course of professional training (in brush-making, basket-making, weaving, knitting, organ-playing and other music, piano-tuning), lasting another three years. Intellectually gifted pupils can receive further instruction at a normal secondary school. The school year starts in the latter half of August and ends in the first half of June. The State pays for the teaching, board and lodging, clothes, doctor's and dentist's attendance and for the pupils' journeys to their homes. The guardian must, however, equip a pupil upon his or her entering the school for the first time and pay the fare on the first journey to the school. Upon leaving school, pupils are presented with a certain outfit to assist them in their profession (a typewriter, utensils, raw materials, etc.). Two doctors, a general practitioner and an ophthalmologist, are in attendance at the school. Each of them pays it a weekly visit. A dentist sees to the teeth of the children, and a hospital nurse looks after the sick ones in a special infirmary. Nowadays blindness is principally due to inherited diseases. This is the case where 73 per cent of the children are concerned. Blennorrhoea neonatorum, which may be inherited at birth from a mother suffering from gonorrhoea, has disappeared completely since the prescription of lapis drops.—Theoretical subjects are taught by primary school teachers who have attended a one year's course at the Institute.

The adult blind are trained at special *Occupational Schools*, of which there is one at Kristinehamn for blind men, and one at Vaxjo for women. Both schools admit blind persons over 14 years of age; an upper age-limit has not been fixed. As a rule, training goes on for three years here, but modifications can be made to suit individual requirements. Both schools arrange refresher courses whenever possible. The pupils are also afforded opportunities for attending school cookery courses at the Tomteboda Institute. The theoretical subjects include reading and writing according to the braille system, typing, bookkeeping, hygiene and social science. Besides, the school programme includes singing and gymnastics. Men are trained in brush-making and basket-making, women in weaving and

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knitting, brush-making and basket-weaving. Attention is also paid to the study of raw materials. The public Swedish Employment Exchange makes every effort to place as many blind as possible in industry. They are well suited for many kinds of time-work, which require a fine sense of touch.

The school at *Kristinehamn* is a day-school; it receives about 45 pupils. They lodge with families in the town and pay for their own board and lodging and their clothes. In many cases their native parishes pay their expenses in this respect. The State allows each pupil an annual boarder's grant amounting to one thousand crowns, pays for instruction and provides pupils with an outfit when they have completed their course of training.

The school at *Växjö* is a boarding-school and can house about 30 pupils. The annual fee for instruction, board and lodging amounts to 230 crowns. The pupils provide their own clothes and pay for their personal expenses. On leaving the school the pupils receive some kind of outfit.

The *Home at Lund for the Care of Blind suffering from Complicated Disabilities* admits blind persons who suffer, more-over, from some other disablement (i.e. who are deaf, mentally deficient, crippled, epileptics, etc.). As a rule no one over the age of 20 is admitted. The Home embraces three institutions: a school, a home for pupils who are capable of doing some work, and one for patients requiring care. The school receives children of school age who are capable of following roughly the programme taught at schools for deaf and mentally deficient children who are not handicapped by blindness. Here like at Tomteboda Institute the children have Christmas and summer Holidays. When they have attended the full 5-6 years' course of the school, the pupils are transferred to the home, where they can learn to do some kind of work, such as weaving or some other practical occupation capable of developing, if possible, their ability and their personal initiative. Here work proceeds all the year round with short intervals at Christmas. Easter and a fortnight in the summer. The blind who cannot profitably be taught anything are being cared for at the second home. It is open all the year round. At Lund pupils are taught and are cared for entirely at the public charge.

All the Swedish schools for the blind are administered by the Board of Education, who employ a special Inspector charged with supervising the instruction of the blind. Requests for admittance to most of the schools have to be written on special forms approved by the Board of Education. These forms may be obtained by application to the Rector of the respective school.

The Government grants certain facilities to the blind in connection with the National Pension Scheme; they take the form of an *invalid's pension* plus bonus, the most important being the *blindman's bonus*.

The *Central Dépôt of Artciles made by the Blind* (address Tomteboda) is partly run by the Government. Its task consists in acting as a central buying and selling organization, which supplies the blind with the necessary raw materials and sells the articles they have made.

The *Association of the Blind* (De blindas förening) is the national organization of the blind. It protects their interests and grants them far-reaching assistance. The Association has branches all over the country; it has its own Funds for assisting the sick and paying burial grants and runs a large lending library in Stockholm. The local branches run workshops and arrange for the sale of different articles. The Association publishes a weekly paper, "The Blindman's Weekly" (De blindas veckoblad), which every blind person may obtain free of charge. The Association receives State subsidies.

Crown Princess Margaret's Board for Providing Work for the Blind (Kronprinsessan Margaretas arbetsnämnd för de blinda) in Stockholm has a branch in every administrative district, where numerous local representatives (friends working for the protection of the blind) work in collaboration with the head office. The board grants subsidies for the building of homes and the opening of workshops, for courses of training, the purchase of implements, machines, medical assistance, etc. The Social Bureau of the organization of the blind (Blindorganisationernas sociala byra) in Stockholm has been founded by this board and is run by it.

The Society for the Welfare of the Blind (Foreningen for blindas val) in Stockholm distributes working material to the blind as well as books printed in braille and assists them with study grants. The *"Book Fund of the Blind"* (De blindas bokfond) publishes books and music in braille and grants scholarships to enable the blind to attend higher educational establishments. A printing press and publishing office for books in braille has been established at the Tomteboda Institute.

In addition, there are several societies and institutions of a more limited local character in different parts of the country, which, among other activities, run small homes for the blind.

On making an application to the Radio Bureau of the Board of Telegraphs, a blind person may obtain a radio license free of charge, in case he or she lacks the necessary funds and is not of compulsory school age or housed in a hospital or home for the sick or aged, or finally, the member of a household, where some other member is capable of paying for a radio license.

ENVIRONMENTAL HOME AND SCHOOL PROBLEMS IN THE EDUCATION OF THE BLIND

By MOZELLE JONES

A poor knowledge of how to care for a blind baby on the part of the mother marks the beginning of a series of problems in the educational developments of the child. These problems may be classified into three distinct groups, physical, mental, and emotional.

Let us consider the physical problems. If the seeing child does not develop physically, he can gain a storehouse of knowledge from the use of his eyes, but when a child is totally blind and proper training has been neglected, that child is helpless and waits patiently for the assistance from other members of his family. He may never learn to walk, to dress, and to feed himself. Therefore, he becomes an isolated member of his family and remains a helpless burden for the remainder of his life.

Today, we are living in an age of enlightenment. There have already been established throughout several of the states parent training programs through which many answers to parental questions have been clarified. "I am teaching my blind baby to walk," said a mother who had attended the Perkins Institute Conference for three weeks. "Oh that I could convey my wealth of instruction to every mother of a blind child."

For the benefit of those mothers who still grope in darkness, I should like to present a few helpful training suggestions. Place into the hands of your blind babies toys that will rattle, toys that will produce a distinct sound. Procure toys with handles which your baby will grasp and struggle to hold, for this is his first clue to good, wholesome muscular coordination. When your child has reached the walking stage, special precautions should be taken as the incentives to take a step are not as great as those of your child with sight. Musical toys are helpful in teaching your blind child to walk. Place the toy just out of the child's reach. The desire for the tinkling sound will cause him to wriggle and push forward in his effort to grasp it. A play pen is also a helpful aid. It gives the baby limited space in which he may explore with a complete feeling of security. Train your blind child at an early age to dress and feed himself. This process may be slow but it is not impossible. Success comes with patience and unlimited time in proper training. When your child is five or six years of age and is developed physically you can place him in a special class with complete assurance that you have given him the environmental training that is essential to his physical growth.

The preschool years are an important time in the blind child's mental development. Numerous mental problems find their rootings in the homes of blind children because of inactivity. No one will venture to try to estimate the exact degree of knowledge a seeing child gets from using his eyes and through adventurous play. This statement is not true of your blind child who sees nothing, and for fear of being hurt, is inclined to stay put for an unlimited amount of time. As a result of this inactivity and idleness, blindisms become uncontrollable habits which have their effects upon the child's mental capacity. At present, I have a boy in my own classroom who constantly looks through two fingers at a small ray of light that seeps in through a

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tiny opening. So deep-rooted is this habit that the child will move his hands from the page in midst of a reading class and immediately forget what the assigned story is about. Some of my readers may consider the effect of this habit physical rather than mental, but until this environmental trait has been corrected, progress for this child will be slow because of inattentiveness and non-concentration. Shaking the head, swaying the body, holding the head down, walking with the hands out are all noticeable blindisms which, if not corrected during the early years, will be the beginning of a series of problems that will have their effects upon mental growth and development. Again, let me emphasize the great necessity for more parental knowledge of how to cope with these problems. Much special attention should be given to your baby during the first year, and especially when the baby is first learning to talk. Names of toys and parts of the body should be spoken and touched with the child's tiny sensitive fingers. When he has learned to talk, the unlimited number of questions should be answered with patience and with kind words. If a bird sings or a dog barks, do not stop with telling your blind child what the sounds were made by, but secure the actual animals and supply your child with first-hand information. If the child hears the fire engine, telling your child what it is is not enough, but immediately arrange for a visit to the fire station. I cannot impress upon you too strongly the need of increasing the experiences of these little people who are shut in and must secure their pictures of the world about them through the conscientious efforts of those responsible for their mental training. These experiences should include an abundance of first hand information which will lead the child to make his own critical investigations. Never discourage the efforts of your blind child, and never frighten him by telling him that he cannot learn. "Johnny is blind," said his mother, "therefore he cannot learn, so just don't bother with him." Little Johnny believed what his mother said. Therefore, he put forth no effort to try. A few years later, Johnny was dismissed from school because he showed signs of imbecility which was the result of an idle mind that was influenced by an untrained mother.

No parent wants to be guilty of such an unforgivable crime. You do not want to be a blockade in the path of your child's mental growth. So show him, through his tiny hands, what life about him really is. Teach your child to count and to memorize nursery rhymes. You will find in him an excellent memory, not because he is blind, but because the loss of vision has necessitated it. Don't make the fatal mistake of praising him for his wonderful mind, but fill his hours with informational activities and with the happiness that comes from being busy and learning.

You will recall that I am considering three phases of problems in the environmental training of the blind—the physical, the mental, and the emotional. Like the proverbial faith, hope, and charity, the greatest of these is the emotional. You may secure for your child the finest physical growth, an excellent adaptation to his blindness; you may secure for him an alert mind with a wealth of background information obtained through his other senses; but, if he has not attained an emotional adjustment to his handicap you have failed. It is true that success in physical training makes for better mental development, and well-rounded growth in both is essential to emotional stability. Yet, many of the failures in blind adults, well-trained physically and mentally in spite of their handicaps, are due to their emotional maladjustment. It is therefore very essential that much attention be given to the attitude of the parent toward the child's handicap. It is natural for parents of blind children to feel intense grief over their children's condition. So very often I wonder if a parent ever becomes fully reconciled to her child's handicaps. As the child adapts himself to his blindness, the grief of the parent is lessened, but I feel that the mother of a blind baby feels the handicap much more keenly than her child ever does. I can remember when my own mother wept in silence over my condition, while I, unaware of the defect, questioned the reason for her grief. A child can be spared the feeling of inferiority complex if he is trained to assume a satisfactory attitude before he becomes aware of his condition. In order to develop this satisfactory attitude, parents should control their grief, not pity their children nor allow them to pity themselves. I do not mean that the word "blind" must be struck out of the family vocabulary, nor do I mean that your child must be constantly reminded of his existing condition. Discuss your child's problems with your family physician and friends for the sole purpose of helping him and void your own emotional outbursts. Train your blind child to tie his own shoes, comb his own hair, and put his toys away at the end of play. Encourage every little

effort your child puts forth. "Thank you, Johnny, for bringing father his shoes." "Thank you, Mary for handing mother her sewing." These encouragements will make your child the proud doer of deeds and not the happy receiver of special attention from everyone else.

One of the most extensive pitfalls of parents of blind children is the over-indulgence of attention lavished upon them. In their efforts to make up for their child's handicap, they permit him extra pleasures and favors, and excuse him for everything he does. In so doing, these parents err in three important phases of child development; first, it is poor training and later becomes an injustice to the child rather than a kindness, second, it makes for unwholesome relationship between the blind child and his other brothers and sisters; third, it makes an unstable, maladjusted blind adult minus of a feeling of security and independence. An ill-trained child makes an ill-natured blind adult, and nothing is more pathetic than a blind adult who is so disagreeable that no one is willing to give him companionship. Happy is that child whose parents seek out the difference between pity and sympathy, and so control these sympathies that he grows up mannerly and considerate of others. The joy in doing something for someone else blocks out the miserable feeling that the world owes him something. As a child, I was given no more special attention than my other brothers and sisters, and many times I bore the punishment that was rightfully theirs. At that time I felt that it was an injustice, but today, I feel that I can never repay my parents for what they contributed to my emotional development.

Parents, the opportunity lies within your hands during the preschool years, to build for your child, in spite of his blindness, a well-rounded personality. Personality development is dynamic because life is dynamic. It is developed through growth, because life itself is growth. Your child grows emotionally in proportion to his relationship with you. The training of his body and mind requires many hours of your attention and instruction. The development of his emotional stability requires complete control of your grief and sympathy. Inasmuch as you have achieved this, you have found the answer to your own question, "What shall I do with my blind baby?"

MISSISSIPPI SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND

By JOHN W. EAKES

The Mississippi School for the Blind, in 1948, celebrated its Centennial as a state supported school. From its meager beginning, as the result of an act of the Legislature, on March 2, 1848, and with an appropriation of only $2,500 for its operation during the first year, the school has undergone many changes to reach its present $1,500,000 system, which includes new schools and equipment for both white and negro children.

It was not until 1856 that the Legislature appropriated $2,000 for a musical and mechanical department. The first class, consisting of two students, was taught reading, geography, grammer and arithmetic. In 1861, the course of study was increased to include French, Latin and Algebra.

The Confederate Army took over the institution in May, 1862 and used it as an army hospital. The school moved to Monticello to be able to continue its work. It was one of the few schools of the South which did not close its doors to blind students during the Civil War.

By 1872, the school had become co-educational, with 17 "females" out of the 29 students enrolled. The instruction of broom and mattress making was added and for the first time, a student graduated. The first definite school year was established in 1881. At this time there was no definite term of school attendence; when a pupil was sufficiently educated, he was awarded a diploma.

During its one hundred years of operation, the school has moved its location twice. By 1935, the school located at 1019 North State Street, included the three story building constructed in 1880, the auditorium building which housed the music and industrial departments, the literary department building and the boys dormitory.

John W. Eakes is superintendent of the Mississippi School for the Blind, Jackson, Mississippi.

In 1944, the Mississippi Legislature reorganized the Mississippi Schools for the Blind and Deaf and put them under a board of trustees composed of seven members with terms running from one to seven years. This board elects a superintendent for each school for a term of six years. This board has served so well that each member has been reappointed when the term of appointment has ended. Up to 1944 the law required the trustees to elect a doctor as superintendent of the school. However, the new law requires the board to elect an educator as superintendent and meet all the qualifications as required for superintendent of the public schools. Also the teachers have to meet all educational qualifications of the public school teachers. The reorganization was accomplished under H.B. 304 and is regarded as one of the best laws of the nation dealing with blind and deaf schools.

During the session of 1946, the Mississippi Legislature appropriated $2,000,000 for the purpose of constructing new schools for the blind and deaf on state land in northeast Jackson. The construction of the buildings was delayed more than two years due to the uncertainty of the relocation of Highway 51. The buildings for the new schools have been completed and now the blind and deaf children of Mississippi have homes as good as any in the nation and modern equipment which will let them take their places in the affairs of a modern world.

Again in 1948, the Mississippi Legislature appropriated $400,000 to repair the present school for the negro deaf and to build a school for the negro blind. The negro schools are modern and well equipped for training the negro blind and deaf. These schools are located in west Jackson.

Pupils Eligible to Enter Schools for Blind

Pupils between the ages of 7 to 21 years, with a visual acuity of 20/100 or less, with corrections with glasses, are eligible to enter the Mississippi School for the Blind. Ophthalmologists are requested to refer eligible pupils to Superintendent John W. Eakes and he will contact them.

Literary Work

The Mississippi School for the Blind parallels the State adopted courses in literary work for the first through the twelfth grades. The instruction for the blind is very technical and personal. Much individual instruction is required in learning to write and read braille.

The American Printing House for the Blind, Louisville, Kentucky, is now printing books in large print for the schools for the blind throughout the nation. These books are used for pupils with vision of 20/200 to 20/100. About 25 to 30 per cent of our pupils will be able to use the large print in the sight saving department. This work was introduced in this school last year.

Both the elementary and high schools are now accredited by the State Accrediting Committee. Our graduates are able to enter any college in the state without an examination.

Vocational Work for the Blind

Piano Tuning

It takes from four to five years to master the trade of tuning pianos. In many instances a blind person makes a better tuner than a sighted person. This department for many years has turned out good tuners not only for Mississippi but for a number of other States.

Music Department

Our Music Department consists of piano, voice and orchestra. All of our pupils have an opportunity to try out for glee club and orchestra. Many of our graduates are making good salaries working in orchestras, playing for radio programs, directing choirs, etc.

Commercial Work

In our commercial classes, our aim is to teach the students how to type accurately, not only for their own pleasure and convenience, but so they will have a vocation which will enable them to earn a livelihood. Typing and dictaphone transcribing are taught from the 7th grade through the 12th grade or until such time as the maximum efficiency has been reached. This month a number of our former students are taking the Civil Service examinations for blind dictaphone transcribers. The Federal Government cooperates in a fine way in helping provide jobs for blind people.

Boys' Shop Work

In the shop boys are taught to cane chairs, make brooms and mops, mattresses, string tennis rackets, and make many useful articles for the home.

Girls Shop

The girls are taught how to cook and sew in addition to the principles of caring for home. Many girls earn good money from weaving, making trays and baskets, making rugs, and leather goods.

Future Courses Planned

The superintendent and faculty have planned new courses in gardening, greenhouse work, rose culture, pressing shop and laundry work, poultry raising, 4-H Club calf work, and a course in pottery to be used in connection with the green house work will be given.

The Superintendent and the Faculty know the possibilities for the blind and it is their desire and ambition to impart this knowledge to others. Visitors are always welcome at our school.

FOLK SONGS

By Mae Snively

Folk-songs are signs of the artistic longings of a people. They are never songs that have been written or "composed" but are thoughts and songs created by the people themselves. They express the inner feelings of the people, of joy, sadness, longing, patriotism or other emotion.

They are handed down, sometimes for centuries, by word of mouth. Each folk-song also reflects in a very interesting way, the ideals, manners, customs and historical background of the nation to which it belongs. In spite of all the folk-music of each nation, fundamental characteristics are the same. They are rhythm, melody and mood. All folk-songs contain the three.

We find national characteristics in folk-songs. All races have distinctive national songs which are recognized as their own. The climate, geographical, political, or historical features of a land is recognized in a folk-song.

In England, because of the form of civilization and government for so many centuries, security of home life created many happy songs. They brought about singing games which were sung and danced by grown people as well as children. They would sing and dance on the village green on Saturday nights such as "Oats, Peas and Beans" and the "Mulberry Bush."

English folk-songs have been noted for their dignity and melodic beauty "Drink to Me Only With Thine Eyes"; "God Rest Ye, Merry Gentlemen"; and "Sumer is icumen in" are good examples.

Folk-music of Scotland has a pronounced rhythm. "Comin' thro' the Rye," "Auld Lang Syne" and "Loch Lomond" are well known. "John Peel" is a stirring hunting song, and suggests the sound of an old time hunting horn.

Robert Burns kept many Scotch tunes alive by adding suitable words to them.

The Irish had folk-tunes in the fifth century. They were among the earliest to use written music. The people of Ireland are among the most musical folk of the world. Real Irish music is as distinctive as that of Spain or Russia.

"The Harp That Once Thro' Tara's Hall" is a favorite Irish air. The ancient Irish harper held festivals and contests at Tara Castle each year. The castle has not been used for nearly fourteen hundred years but its outlines still show in the ruins on Tara Hill. The early kings and queens of Ireland are said to have been crowned there.

"The Last Rose of Summer" and "Believe Me, If All Those Endearing Young Charms" are Irish airs with the words by Thomas Moore. He did much to promote the life of Irish songs.

A truly American writer of what may be called our folk songs is Stephen Collins Foster. He was born July 4, 1826 in Lawrenceville, Pennsylvania, now a part of Pittsburgh. One day when he was seven years old he went shopping with his mother, and while she was busy he discovered a flute on one of the counters. He picked it up and

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Mae Snively is a teacher in the Academic Department of the Idaho State School for the Deaf and Blind in Gooding, Idaho.

after experimenting with it he found he could play a tune. His mother bought the flute and he soon learned to play it quite well. Later he learned to play the piano and he also had a pleasing voice. At the age of sixteen his first published song appeared.

One day he was writing and he wanted the name of a river with two syllables, so he and his brother began looking in an atlas and found the Suwanee River in Florida. He liked the name and shortened it to Swanee. Now we call the song "Swanee River" or "Old Folks at Home."

"My Old Kentucky Home" has an interesting story. It was the home of his cousins, the Rowans, who were among the founders of the state of Kentucky. It was a famous old brick house, said to be the oldest brick house standing in Kentucky today. The bricks were brought from England in 1795. This house is now a national shrine to his memory. There is also a very handsome building erected to his memory in Pittsburgh. All that he saw of the South was what he absorbed from the Old Kentucky Home of his relatives, where he used to visit. He liked the Negroes and was able to put his feelings in music in such songs as "Old Black Joe," "Massa's in the Cold, Cold Ground," "Old Uncle Ned," "Oh Susanna," "Camp Town Races" and many others. They are not intended to be compared with the songs of Schubert, Schumann or Brahms, but for sheer, simple melodies of the folk-song type we are very much indebted to the gentle, good hearted Stephen Collins Foster.

FOOT TRAVEL AT MARYLAND SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND

By BEATRIX BAIRD

In the teaching of foot travel at Maryland School for the Blind, the cane technique used is that which was taught at Valley Forge General Hospital, Phoenixville, Pa., and Old Farms Convalescent Hospital at Avon, Connecticut during and after World War II, and is being used at Hines Veterans Hospital as well as by many agencies doing rehabilitation work with the blind. The technique of handling the cane itself is not so difficult as to become discouraging, and the fact that it is being used successfully by so many people following pursuits that are highly desirable, lends pride and confidence to the achievement of this skill. Our course of study in foot travel, however, endeavors to give the student much more than the mechanical skill of handling a cane.

The orientation taught is both general and specific. The student is given basic training in direction finding. Newcomer Hall, our schoolhouse, faces south and gives us a good starting point and the student is taught to look for a base of this kind wherever he may be; to take advantage of the sun's rays in judging his directions. He learns the importance of being aware of different pavements, the feel of gravel, asphalt, brick and other surfaces, as well as the sound of his cane; the slope that indicates a driveway which will become a landmark; the changing echoes created as the tap of his cane bounces back from stone pillars or walls, at his side or straight ahead of him. Trees and bushes become landmarks too. And on city streets there are noises and smells to be used as guides. He listens for traffic and is able to locate traffic stop lights by the stop and flow of traffic. He is taught to allow traffic to move on and to wait for the next stop before crossing, in order not to be caught "out in the middle," when the light turns green. The sounds and smells emanating from buildings become valuable signposts. From his first lesson, and as long as his course of travel lasts, he is constantly reminded to keep track of every turn he makes, every landmark he can identify, so that he can retrace his steps. He is taught to board and leave trolleys and busses at the front exits where the motorman manually controls the doors; to stand still when he reaches the street or pavement so motorists

Beatrix Baird is a member of the faculty of the Maryland School for the Blind, Overlea, Maryland.

and pedestrians can recognize his cane and his need for their cooperation. He learns the importance of being familiar with street names and numbers, and how to ask graciously for or accept assistance. This general training for cane travel will be equally valuable should he, at some future time, wish to use a guide dog.

Specifically, cane travel is a "must" for junior and senior high school students who attend Eastern or City College High Schools. The first of these is the girls' high school. The girl or boy who is to go to a city high school must be able to travel alone. Frequently some of these students have a fair amount of travel vision and, inevitably, those who do not have useful vision "latch on," but they are not allowed to depend on this "guide service." The student must have completed a prescribed course of travel by the end of the 10th Grade. Occasionally a student in a lower grade is able to fit his program with the instructor's, but more often it is the 10th Grade student who has the lessons which are highly individualized. Each student presents a different problem. There is a great degree of variation in the independence shown at the beginning of the course, as there is in the student's attitude toward a cane and toward travelling alone. The technique of manipulating the cane has been described fully in quite a number of articles in the past five years, so I will not go into it here. The student's travel route starts in Newcomer Hall, where he learns to use his cane on stairs, and leads to the car line in Overlea, the end of the line. He travels along a curving road and through one of the school gates. The streets leading to Belair Road, which is U. S. Highway No. 1, present a number of hazards; narrow broken sidewalks that are high above the road in places with irregular steps at intersections, a street with no sidewalk, and two streets that have far more than their share of ruts. Belair Road is the shopping center of Overlea and in addition to being the end of the line, boasts two motion picture theatres, two dime stores, three drugstores, two cobblers, a goodly number of eating places, as well as markets, dry cleaners, bakeries, clothing stores, etc., and an abundance of gas stations.

The last are probably the most confusing of all. At the end of the trail is the Overlea Diner, adored by the students. And a cup of coffee for the student when he gets there on his own—paid for by the instructor, too! At the end of his course the student buys a folding cane. It is something he is proud of—not only because it is his badge of achievement, but because it is a fine looking cane. It has a plexiglass crook handle and telescopes to a size that can be tucked into a brief case. According to the girls and boys it is a "neat little article." The girls have an added incentive to learn how to travel alone. It makes them eligible for the Y-teen Summer Conference held at Albright College, Reading, Pa., in June. Here they spend a week with Y-teens from New Jersey, Delaware, Eastern Pennsylvania, Maryland and Washington, D. C. It is the high spot of their Y-teen Club year.

The students have put their travel skill to good use, and have found the independence it gives them a most pleasurable feeling. There was Jeanne, whose first solo travelling was to the corner drugstore at home. Her allowance went much further when she no longer had to treat her sister every time she bought an ice cream cone. Jeanne travels all over Washington now with her "best friend." And Micky, who surprised his parents one Saturday, arriving with his suitcase and a grin that went from ear to ear. He had to take a trolley and two busses to get there. Micky knew that his parents would have come out to get him had they suspected that he even contemplated the trip. They let Micky come and go on his own now. Lillie put her cane in her pocketbook when she went to Perkins Institution for Girls' Play Day. She explored Watertown Square with two other visiting girls in tow. The boys in the piano tuning department have enjoyed the extra jobs they've been able to take on since they've learned to travel alone.

In my four years of teaching foot travel at Maryland School for the Blind I have accumulated endless stories of the help and joy it has brought to the students. For me, it continues to be deeply inspiring and thoroughly satisfying.

HOW THE BLIND ARE TAUGHT HIGHER MATHEMATICS

By DIEDRICH RAMKE

The teaching of higher mathematics constitutes one of the most difficult phases of the education of the visually handicapped. Some authorities in this specialized field have, in the past, gone so far as to advocate its entire elimination from the curriculum, characterizing the attempt to teach the higher forms of mathematics to sightless children as sheer mental cruelty. This view, however, is unduly pessimistic; the average blind student can learn mathematics, and the benefits derived therefrom are probably greater than those accruing to the average person with normal vision.

Certain adaptations or adjustments in regard to methods and procedure are necessary in teaching algebra and geometry to students without sight or with only partial vision. The use of the blackboard for demonstrating the solution of problems is, of course, valueless; some students have sufficient vision to use a blackboard or pencils with heavy, dark leads for working their own problems. The great majority, however, must rely entirely upon Braille. These conditions necessitate a very great deal of individual instruction.

The Braille mathematical notation system contains a very complete set of algebraic symbols and affords efficient methods for setting down the simpler problems encountered in first-year algebra. The more complicated forms used in advanced algebra, however, are sometimes rather confusing to the Braille student. For example, exponents in which literal and fractional parts are used in combination are often difficult to read, as also are long, complex fractions containing several sets of grouping symbols. In the latter instance it is frequently advisable for the instructor to rewrite the algebraic expression in such a manner as to render clearly perceptible to the sense of touch those quantities which are included in each of the larger terms of the fraction. Clarification is usually not difficult where the instructor himself reads Braille tactually.

The use of the Braille machine affords numerous advantages as compared with that of the slate and stylus in the solution of mathematical problems; but even so, the Braille student must be taught to do a much greater part of his work mentally than is the case with the average sighted student. Remarkable skill in performing mental calculations can be developed which has great practical value.

The trends and tendencies depicted by graphical representations are usually not nearly so apparent to the sense of touch as they are to the eye, and this is particularly true where several curves occur on a single graph. Braille students can readily learn to use logarithmic tables, both algebraic and trigonometric, and their handling of such tables in the solution of problems is very satisfactory.

In teaching geometry practically no construction work is required of the students for the reason that it is extremely difficult to draw embossed figures with any degree of accuracy, since such figures must be drawn in reverse on one side of a sheet of paper in order for them to appear in relief and in the proper position on the other side. Sometimes it is necessary for the teacher to supplement the embossed figures of the text with drawings of his own, and in some instances geometric figures cut from blocks of wood, fashioned from wire, or formed with cord and tacks on a soft board furnish valuable aids in the clarification of complicated proofs or solutions. An important fact to remember is that geometric figures that may appear perfectly clear and simple in outline to the eye, which perceives the form in its entirety at a glance, may seem rather complex when perceived through the tactual sense. Often the perception of geometric shapes can be made easier through the aid

Dr. Diedrich Ramke is on the high school staff of the Louisiana State School for the Blind in Baton Rouge.

of the kinesthetic sense, that is, simply by moving the student's hand to form the figure without the use of lines or physical forms.

Although there are special difficulties to be met and overcome in teaching high school mathematics to visually handicapped students, the courses offered in this field at the Louisiana State School for the Blind are on a par with those of the other high schools of the state; and the students at this school enjoy an advantage in that class membership is usually small, thus enabling the instructor to devote a great deal of individual attention to every student. Individual differences in mathematical aptitude among the members of this special group are as great as those prevailing among sighted children, and frequently the best students are those who are totally without vision and who seemingly labor under the greatest handicap.

THE IMPORTANCE OF MUSIC IN SCHOOLS FOR THE BLIND

By LUCILE MAHAN

Many things are to be considered when an attempt is made to compare one school for the blind with another. In some schools we find splendid modern equipment and an adequate teaching staff. Other schools which are not so fortunate financially are limited as to equipment and number of teachers. I am a member of a faculty of a school which is numbered with the latter group. We have a large enrollment, but a very small staff in our music department. My work includes, teaching of piano to all Braille pupils from the sixth grade through the twelfth grade inclusive, teaching of voice, and directing and accompanying the senior chorus. Due to lack of time, theory and harmony must be taught in connection with the piano and voice work. As my duties cover such a wide field, I have chosen the very general subject "The Importance of Music in the Schools for the Blind."

What is the place that music holds in our schools? Actually just how important do we consider it? A superintendent once expressed himself very decidedly as to the relative importance of the various departments of our school. First, came the physical education, to which I think we all agree; second, the literary; third, the manual; fourth and last, the music. Inwardly, I rather resented this order of things but I obtained some consolation by telling myself that after all he had a very limited appreciation of music. But why make such a distinction? All students are not gifted alike. Should not our various departments be equally equipped to meet the needs of our pupils? Certain phases of the physical education work would be very uninteresting without musical accompaniment. As a student and as a teacher, I have found that music and literature have walked hand in hand. Very seldom does the literary department present a program that it does not have need of musical numbers, and just as frequently, the academic department adds to the beauty of a musical program. Occasionally these two departments unite in the presentation of a beautiful operetta. The study of good music deepens one's appreciation of Browning and Tennyson, and just as truly, the knowledge and understanding of good literature aids in the interpretation of beautiful music.

Have you ever tried to imagine a school for the blind entirely deprived of music? Can you feature morning devotions with no singing of hymns or anthems and no special musical numbers after the devotional? What if there were no sound of piano or vocal practice day after day and instead of band or orchestra, complete silence. A few people might welcome its absence, but I believe the majority would agree that without music the school would be a dull place in which to work. In an institution, music creates warmth, life, happiness and spiritual uplift.

Sometimes we teachers may feel that too much emphasis is placed upon programs, but the various recitals given throughout the year are a wonderful stimulus for our students.

Lucile Mahan is a member of the Music Department of the Alabama School for the Deaf and Blind at Talladega, Alabama.

Our president, in the interest of our school, has inaugurated an extensive publicity campaign. He presents many programs before the various organizations throughout the state. Invariably, more than half the numbers of these programs are contributed by the music department.

The sight-saving work which has been in existence in our school for three years will, I feel, prove to be a great advantage to our department. We have a special teacher for the sight-saving group. With specially lighted practice rooms and studio these pupils are able to read print music with comparative ease. Many students of the past might have done excellent work under the present arrangement. In this connection I always think of a friend who had considerable vision. She struggled along with Braille music for years, and with the help of her classmates, learning two or three compositions a year. As she grew older, she became almost desperate about her work. Finally, the year before graduation, she asked her teacher to permit her to try print music. The teacher reluctantly consented. The girl's progress was amazing. She had gone from darkness into light. After leaving school, she continued the study of music, and now my friend is one of the most successful teachers of her state.

Since music plays such a vital role in the life of our schools and since it is of such great importance in publicizing our work, what does it mean in the lives of our students after graduation? In answer to the question, "Do you encourage your students to continue the study of music after leaving school?" the reply came, "If they have exceptional ability."

Of course we know that only the person with outstanding ability may do concert work, and very few blind people reach this goal, but generally speaking, just what is meant by the term, "exceptional ability?" How much ability should a pupil possess in order to be encouraged to continue the study of music after leaving the school for the blind. Not only the brilliant literary students, but many with average ability are given college education. Why should not more of our music students receive similar encouragement and aid? Not only the brilliant performers, but those who have a love for music and the ability to teach should be given the opportunity to take further training. None of my sighted instructors were fine performers, yet they were excellent teachers.

A teacher of one of our schools, feeling that the continued study of music after graduation from an institution is impractical, maintains that music should simply be a means to enable a blind person to take his place in his community. Music is one of the greatest social assets which a person deprived of sight might possess. With some, music is paying off financially in their home towns. A former student of our school, a successful teacher in Mobile, Alabama, is earning more money than many instructors in schools for the blind. After leaving us she studied in the Cincinnati Conservatory.

When I reflect upon my own life, I shudder to think that if I had been sent back to my home town, I should have been a failure. Many blind people have far more ability than I possess, but I thank God that my teachers in my native school had enough faith in me to help me get to Overbrook, and that my friends at Overbrook gave me the opportunity of teaching in that wonderful school and aided me in continuing my studies with fine teachers of Philadelphia. My going back to the Alabama School as a teacher opened to me a door of greater opportunity of service to the blind. How full and rich has been my life because of the privilege of teaching in these two great institutions.

One day, after I had joined the normal class at Overbrook, my piano instructor decided that I would be the teacher and she the pupil. Before beginning the lesson I asked, "Will you be a blind or a sighted student?" She thought the question a good one and decided to be a sighted pupil. I have thought of this incident many times and have wondered why, in our normal classes, our students are trained to teach only the sighted. Last year, due to lack of funds, there was no music teacher at our school for Negro blind. Two of our girls gave a little of their time to teach some of these students. This experience created in them a great desire to teach the blind. In the music departments of our schools both blind and sighted teachers should be employed.

In many of our schools teachers are so few, and schedules are so crowded that it is impossible for pupils to specialize in music. Deserving pupils should be given this opportunity. Since a conservatory education

is so expensive, it is difficult for a student to obtain assistance from the rehabilitation department in order to take advantage of this training.

The home teaching course which has been established at Overbrook is a great forward step in work for the blind. What a fine thing it would be if one of our great institutions, which is located in a large city, where musical advantages might be enjoyed, would establish a training school where music students from the various states of the union might go for special training! Here, pupils would have the time to pursue their studies in the various branches of the great art, and to take the much needed normal course which would equip them to teach both the blind and the sighted.

After a student is thus equipped, he should receive help, if it is needed, in obtaining a position. Whether it be the task of working up a class of sighted pupils in his home town or of securing a position as church organist, of obtaining work as a member of an orchestra, or of locating a position as teacher in a school for the blind, the right kind of assistance would do much to help him find work and realize a great ambition.

To those who are dubious as to the ability of the blind to teach their fellow blind, let me say that in all my years of experience as a teacher in an institution, I have taught sighted students at home. I have found that the problems that confront a blind person in teaching the sighted are just as great as those which he faces in teaching the blind.

What I have tried to say is prompted by the burning desire to see the blind gain a greater and more well-deserved recognition in the field of music; be trained to interpret with greater perfection the art which knows no boundaries, and whose language is universal—that art which Weber describes in just one sentence: "Music is Love itself!"

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